COL202: Discrete Mathematical Structures

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Basic Structure: Sets, Functions, Sequences, Sums, and Matrices

Basic Structures Sets

Definition (Set)

A set is an unordered collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of a set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A. The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that a is not an element of the set A.

- Examples:
 - S₁ = {1,3,5,7,9}
 S₃ = {x|x is an odd positive integer less than 10}
 - $S_2 = \{1, 2, 3, ..., 99\}$
 - $\mathbb{N}=\{0,1,2,3,...\},$ the set of natural numbers.
 - $\mathbb{Z}=\{...,-2,-1,0,1,2,...\},$ the set of integers.
 - $\mathbb{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, ...\}$, the set of positive integers.
 - $\mathbb{Q} = \{p/q | p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ and } q \neq 0\}$, the set of rational numbers.
 - $\bullet~\mathbb{R},$ the set of real numbers.
 - \mathbb{R}^+ , the set of positive real numbers.
 - $\bullet~\mathbb{C},$ the set of complex numbers.

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• Examples: Intervals (closed and open)

•
$$[a, b] = \{x | a \le x \le b\}$$

• $[a, b) = \{x | a \le x < b\}$
• $(a, b] = \{x | a < x \le b\}$

•
$$(a, b) = \{x | a < x < b\}$$

Definition (Equality of Sets)

Two sets are *equal* if and only if they have the same elements. Therefore, if A and B are sets, then A and B are equal if and only if $\forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$. We write A = B if A and B are equal sets.

- Are the following sets equal?
 - $\{1,3,5\}$ and $\{3,1,5\}$
 - $\{1,3,5\}$ and $\{1,1,3,3,3,5,5\}$
- A set with no elements is called an *empty set* or *null set*. It is denoted by Ø or by {}.
- A set with one element is called a *singleton set*.

Basic Structures Sets

- Venn Diagram
 - Used to represents graphically and indicate relationships between sets.
 - The *Universal set* (all objects under consideration) is represented using a rectangle.
 - Geometric figures (typically circle) inside the rectangle are used to represent sets.
 - Dots are used to represent elements.



Figure: Venn diagram for the set of vowels

Basic Structures Sets

Definition (Subset)

A set A is a *subset* of B if and only if every element of A is also an element of B. We use the notation $A \subseteq B$ to indicate that A is the subset of the set B.

• For any sets $A, B, A \subseteq B$ iff $\forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ is true.



Figure: Venn diagram showing that $A \subseteq B$.



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- A set A is said to be a proper subset of a set B if A is a subset of B but A ≠ B.
- Write in terms of a quantified expression.

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- A set A is said to be a proper subset of a set B if A is a subset of B but A ≠ B.
- Write in terms of a quantified expression: $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \land \exists y(y \in B \land y \notin A).$

Definition (Subset)

A set A is a *subset* of B if and only if every element of A is also an element of B. We use the notation $A \subseteq B$ to indicate that A is the subset of the set B.

Theorem

Two sets A and B are equal if and only if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

Definition (Size of a set)

Let S be a set. If there are exactly n distinct elements in S where n is a nonnegative integer, we say that S is a *finite set* and that n is the cardinality of S. The cardinality of S is denoted by |S|.

Definition (Infinite set)

A set is said to be infinite if it is not finite. (Example: set of positive integers)

Definition (Power set)

Given a set S, the *power set* of S is the set of all subsets of the set S. The power set of S is denoted by $\mathcal{P}(S)$.

- Examples:
 - $\mathcal{P}(\{1,2,3\}) = \{\emptyset,\{1\},\{2\},\{3\},\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,3\},\{1,2,3\}\}$
 - $\mathcal{P}(\varnothing) = \{\varnothing\}.$
 - If a set has *n* elements, how many elements does the power set have?

The ordered *n*-tuple $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, ..., and a_n as its *n*th element.

Definition (Cartesian product of two sets)

Let A and B be sets. The *cartesian product* of A and B, denoted by $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b), where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Hence,

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) | a \in A \land b \in B\}$$

• Example:

•
$$A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{a, b, c\}$$

•
$$A \times B = \hat{P}$$

•
$$B \times A = ?$$

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• Example:

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$$A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{a, b, c\}$$

- $A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}$
- $B \times A = \{(a,1), (b,1), (c,1), (a,2), (b,2), (c,2)\}$

The ordered *n*-tuple $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, ..., and a_n as its n^{th} element.

Definition (Cartesian product)

The Cartesian product of the sets $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$, denoted by $A_1 \times A_2 \times ... \times A_n$, is the set of ordered *n*-tuples $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$, where a_i belongs to A_i for i = 1, 2, ..., n. In other words,

 $A_1 \times A_2 \times ... \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) | a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ..., n\}.$

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Definition (Relation)

A subset *R* of the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is called a *relation* from the set *A* to the set *B*. A relation from a set *A* to itself is called a relation on *A*.

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- Given a predicate P, and a domain D, we define the truth set of P to be the set of elements x in D for which P(x) is true. The truth set of P(x) is denoted by {x ∈ D|P(x)}.
- Examples: Consider predicates P(x) : |x| = 1, $Q(x) : x^2 = 2$, and R(x) : |x| = x and let the domain be the set of integers.
 - Truth set of P(x) = ?
 - Truth set of Q(x) = ?
 - Truth set of R(x) = ?

- Given a predicate P, and a domain D, we define the truth set of P to be the set of elements x in D for which P(x) is true. The truth set of P(x) is denoted by {x ∈ D|P(x)}.
- Examples: Consider predicates P(x): |x| = 1, Q(x): x² = 2, and R(x): |x| = x and let the domain be the set of integers.
 - Truth set of $P(x) = \{-1, 1\}$
 - Truth set of $Q(x) = \emptyset$
 - Truth set of $R(x) = \mathbb{N}$

Set operations

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Definition (Union of sets)

Let A and B be sets. The *union* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set that contains those elements that are in A or in B (this includes the element being present in both).

•
$$A \cup B = \{x | x \in A \lor x \in B\}.$$

Definition (Intersection of sets)

Let A and B be sets. The *intersection* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cap B$, is the set that contains those elements that are both in A and in B.

- $A \cap B = \{x | x \in A \land x \in B\}.$
- Two sets are called *disjoint* if their intersection is the empty set.
- Show that $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| |A \cap B|$.

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Definition (Diffrence of sets)

Let A and B be sets. The *difference* of the sets A and B, denoted by A - B, is the set containing those elements that are in A but not in B. The difference of A and B is also called the *complement* of B with respect to A.

- $A-B = \{x | x \in A \land x \notin B\}.$
- The difference of sets A and B is sometimes denoted by $A \setminus B$.

Definition (Complement of a set)

Let *U* be the universal set. The *complement* of the set *A* denoted by \overline{A} is the complement of *A* with respect to *U*. Therefore, the complement of the set *A* is U - A.

- $\bar{A} = \{x \in U | x \notin A\}.$
- Show that $A B = A \cap \overline{B}$.

Definition (Diffrence of sets)

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Definition (Complement of a set)

Let *U* be the universal set. The *complement* of the set *A* denoted by \overline{A} is the complement of *A* with respect to *U*. Therefore, the complement of the set *A* is U - A.



- Show that $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$.
 - Show (1) $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$, and (2) $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$.
 - Use set builder notation.
 - Use a membership table.

Identity	Name
$A \cap U = ?$	Identity laws
$A \cup \varnothing = ?$	
$A \cup U = ?$	Domination laws
$A \cap \varnothing = ?$	
$A \cup A = ?$	Idempotent laws
$A \cap A = ?$	
$\overline{(\overline{A})} = ?$	Complementation law
$A \cup B = B \cup ?$	Commutative laws
$A \cap B = B \cap ?$	
$A \cup (B \cup C) = ?$	Associative laws
$A \cap (B \cap C) = ?$	
$A \cup (B \cap C) = ?$	Distributive laws
$A \cap (B \cup C) = ?$	

Table: Set identities.

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Basic Structures Set operations

Identity	Name
$A \cap U = A$	Identity laws
$A \lor \varnothing = A$	
$A \cup U = U$	Domination laws
$A \cap \varnothing = \varnothing$	
$A \cup A = A$	Idempotent laws
$A \cap A = A$	
$\overline{(\overline{A})} = A$	Complementation law
$A \cup B = B \cup A$	Commutative laws
$A \cap B = B \cap A$	
$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$	Associative laws
$A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$	
$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$	Distributive laws
$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$	

Table: Set identities.

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Idenitity	Name
$\overline{(A \cap B)} = ?$	De Morgan's laws
$\overline{(A \cup B)} = ?$	
$A \cup (A \cap B) = ?$	Absorption laws
$A \cap (A \cup B) = ?$	
$A \cup \overline{A} = ?$	Complement laws
$A \cap \overline{A} = ?$	

Table: Set identities.

Image: A Image: A

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Basic Structures Set operations

Idenitity	Name
$A \cap U = A$	Identity laws
$A \lor \varnothing = A$	
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$\overline{(A \cap B)} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$	De Morgan's laws
$\overline{(A \cup B)} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$	
$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$	Absorption laws
$A \cap (A \cup B) = A$	
$A \cup \overline{A} = U$	Complement laws
$A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$	

Table: Set identities.

• Use set identities to show that $\overline{A \cup (B \cap C)} = (\overline{C} \cup \overline{B}) \cap \overline{A}$.

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Basic Structures: Functions

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Definition (Function)

Let A and B be nonempty sets. A function f from A to B is an assignment of exactly one element of B to each element of A. We write f(a) = b if b is the unique element of B assigned by the function f to the element a of A. If f is a function from A to B, we write $f : A \rightarrow B$.

Definition

If f is a function from A to B, we say that A is the domain of f and B is the codomain of f. If f(a) = b, we say that b is the *image* of a and a is a *preimage* of b. The *range*, or image, of f is the set of all images of elements of A. Also, if f is a function from A to B, we say that f maps A to B.

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- Let $f : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ assign the square of an integer to this integer.
 - What is the codomain of f?
 - What is the range of f?

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Definition (real/integers-valued functions)

A function is called *real-valued* if its codomain is the set of real numbers, and it is called *integer-valued* if its codomain is the set of integers.

Definition (Sum/product of real/integer-valued functions)

Let f_1 and f_2 be functions from A to \mathbb{R} . Then $f_1 + f_2$ and f_1f_2 are also functions from A to \mathbb{R} defined for all $x \in A$ by

 $(f_1 + f_2)(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x),$ $(f_1f_2)(x) = f_1(x)f_2(x).$

Example: Let f₁ and f₂ be functions from ℝ to ℝ such that f₁(x) = x² and f₂(x) = x - x². The what are:
(f₁ + f₂)(x) =?
(f₁ f₂)(x) =?

Let f be a function from A to B and let S be a subset of A. The image of S under the function f is the subset of B that consists of the images of the elements of S. We denote the image of S by f(S), so

$$f(S) = \{t | \exists s \in S(t = f(s))\}.$$

We also use the shorthand $\{f(s)|s \in S\}$ to denote this set.

• Let
$$A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$$
 and $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ with $f(a) = 2, f(b) = 1, f(c) = 4, f(d) = 1, and f(e) = 1$. The image of the subset $S = \{b, c, d\}$ is the set $f(S) = ?$.

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A function f is said to be *one-to-one*, or an *injunction*, if and only if f(a) = f(b) implies that a = b for all a and b in the domain of f. A function is said to be *injective* if it is one-to-one.

• Consider a function $f : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ defined as $f(x) = x^2$. Is this function one-to-one?

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Definition (Increasing/decreasing functions)

A function f whose domain and codomain are subsets of the set of real numbers is called *increasing* if $f(x) \le f(y)$, and *strictly increasing* if f(x) < f(y), whenever x < y and x and y are in the domain of f. Similarly, f is called *decreasing* if $f(x) \ge f(y)$, and *strictly decreasing* if f(x) > f(y), whenever x < y and x and y are in the domain of f. (The word strictly in this definition indicates a strict inequality.)

• Prove or disprove: A strictly increasing function from $\mathbb R$ to $\mathbb R$ is one-to-one.

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A function f is said to be *one-to-one*, or an *injunction*, if and only if f(a) = f(b) implies that a = b for all a and b in the domain of f. A function is said to be injective if it is one-to-one.

Definition (Onto functions)

A function f from A to B is called *onto*, or a *surjection*s, if and only if for every element $b \in B$ there is an element $a \in A$ with f(a) = b. A function f is called *surjective* if it is onto.

• Is the function $f(x) = x^2$ from \mathbb{Z} to \mathbb{Z} onto?

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Basic Structures

Definition (One-to-one functions)

A function f is said to be *one-to-one*, or an *injunction*, if and only if f(a) = f(b) implies that a = b for all a and b in the domain of f. A function is said to be injective if it is one-to-one.

Definition (Onto functions)

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Definition (Bijection)

The function f is a *one-to-one correspondence*, or a *bijection*, if it is both one-to-one and onto. We also say that such a function is *bijective*.



- Suppose that $f : A \rightarrow B$.
 - To show that f is injective: Show that if f(x) = f(y) for arbitrary $x, y \in A$, then x = y.
 - To show that f is not injective: Find particular elements $x, y \in A$ such that $x \neq y$ and f(x) = f(y).
 - To show that is surjective: Consider an arbitrary element $y \in B$ and find an element $x \in A$ such that f(x) = y.
 - To show that f is not surjective: Find a particular y ∈ B such that f(x) ≠ y for all x ∈ A.

Definition (Inverse function)

Let f be a one-to-one correspondence from the set A to the set B. The *inverse* function of f is the function that assigns to an element b belonging to B the unique element a in A such that f(a) = b. The inverse function of f is denoted by f^{-1} . Hence, $f^{-1}(b) = a$ when f(a) = b.

• Example: Let f be a function from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} with $f(x) = x^2$. Is f invertible?

Definition (Composition of functions)

Let g be a function from the set A to the set B and let f be a function from the set B to the set C. The *composition* of the functions f and g, denoted for all $a \in A$ by $f \circ g$, is defined by $(f \circ g)(a) = f(g(a))$.

- Example: Let f : Z → Z and g : Z → Z be functions defined as f(x) = 2x + 3 and g(x) = 3x + 2. What is the composition of f and g? What is the composition of g and f?
- For any function f, what is the composition of f and f^{-1} ?
- For any function f, what is the composition of f^{-1} and f?

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Definition (Graph of functions)

Let f be a function from the set A to the set B. The graph of a function f is the set of ordered pairs $\{(a, b)|a \in A \text{ and } f(a) = b\}$.



Figure: The graph of $f(x) = x^2$ from \mathbb{Z} to \mathbb{Z} .

Definition (Partial functions)

A partial function f from a set A to a set B is an assignment to each element a in a subset of A, called the domain of definition of f, of a unique element b in B. The sets A and B are called the domain and codomain of f, respectively. We say that f is undefined for elements in A that are not in the domain of definition of f. When the domain of definition of f equals A, we say that f is a total function.

 The function f : Z → R where f(n) = √n is a partial function from Z to R where the domain of definition is the set of nonnegative integers.

Sequences and summations

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Definition (Sequence)

A sequence is a function from a subset of the set of integers (usually either the set $\{0, 1, 2, ...\}$ or the set $\{1, 2, 3, ...\}$) to a set S. We use the notation a_n to denote the image of the integer n. We call a_n a term of the sequence.

- We use the notation $\{a_n\}$ to describe the sequence.
- Example: $\{a_n\}$ where $a_n = 1/n$. The terms of this sequence, beginning with a_1 is 1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4,

Definition (Geometric progression)

A geometric progression is a sequence of the form $a, ar, ar^2, ..., ar^n, ...$ where the initial term a and the common ratio r are real numbers.

Definition (Arithmetic progression)

An arithmetic progression is a sequence of the form a, a + d, a + 2d, ..., a + nd, ... where the initial term a and the common difference d are real numbers.

A recurrence relation for the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is an equation that expresses a_n in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence, namely, $a_0, a_1, ..., a_{n-1}$, for all integers n with $n \ge n_0$, where n_0 is a nonnegative integer. A sequence is called a solution of a recurrence relation if its terms satisfy the recurrence relation.

• Example: $\{a_n\}$ is a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$ for n = 2, 3, 4, ... and $a_0 = 3$ and $a_1 = 5$.

A recurrence relation for the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is an equation that expresses a_n in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence, namely, $a_0, a_1, ..., a_{n-1}$, for all integers n with $n \ge n_0$, where n_0 is a nonnegative integer. A sequence is called a solution of a recurrence relation if its terms satisfy the recurrence relation.

- The *initial conditions* for a recursively defined sequence specify the terms that precede the first term where the recurrence relation takes effect.
- We say that we have solved the recurrence relation together with the initial conditions when we find an explicit formula, called a *closed formula*, for the terms of the sequence.

A recurrence relation for the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is an equation that expresses a_n in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence, namely, $a_0, a_1, ..., a_{n-1}$, for all integers n with $n \ge n_0$, where n_0 is a nonnegative integer. A sequence is called a solution of a recurrence relation if its terms satisfy the recurrence relation.

• Solve the following recurrence relation and the initial condition: $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$ for n = 1, 2, 3, ... and $a_0 = 2$.

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Cardinality of Sets

Ragesh Jaiswal, CSE, IIT Delhi COL202: Discrete Mathematical Structures

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The sets A and B have the same cardinality if there is a one-to-one correspondence from A to B. When A and B have the same cardinality, we write |A| = |B|.

Definition

If there is a one-to-one function from A to B, the cardinality of A is less than or the same as the cardinality of B and we write $|A| \le |B|$. The cardinality of A is less than the cardinality of B, written as |A| < |B|, if there is an injection but no surjection from A to B.

Definition (Countable and uncountable sets)

A set that is either finite or has the same cardinality as the set of positive integers is called *countable*. A set that is not countable is called *uncountable*.

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• Show that the set of odd positive integers is a countable set.

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• An infinite set is countable if and only if it is possible to list the elements of the set in a sequence (indexed by the positive integers).

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Theorem

Let S be a set. Then $|S| < |\mathcal{P}(S)|$.

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Proof sketch

- We need to show the following:
 - **1** <u>Claim 1</u>: There is an injection from S to $\mathcal{P}(S)$.
 - **2** <u>Claim 2</u>: There is no surjection from S to $\mathcal{P}(S)$.

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 - **1** <u>Claim 1</u>: There is an injection from S to $\mathcal{P}(S)$.
 - Consider a function $f: S \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(S)$ defined as: for any
 - $s \in S, f(s) = \{s\}$. This is an injective function.
 - **2** <u>Claim 2</u>: There is no surjection from S to $\mathcal{P}(S)$.

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- **2** <u>Claim 2</u>: There is no surjection from S to $\mathcal{P}(S)$.
 - Consider any function f : S → P(S) and consider the following set defined in terms of this function: A = {x|x ∉ f(x)}
 - Claim 2.1: There does not exist an element $s \in S$ such that f(s) = A.

Basic Structures Cardinality of Sets

Definition

If there is a one-to-one function from A to B, the cardinality of A is less than or the same as the cardinality of B and we write $|A| \le |B|$. The cardinality of A is less than the cardinality of B, written as |A| < |B|, if there is an injection but no surjection from A to B.

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- We need to show the following:
 - O <u>Claim 1</u>: There is an injection from S to P(S).
 - Consider a function $f: S \to \mathcal{P}(S)$ defined as: for any $s \in S, f(s) = \{s\}$. This is an injective function.
 - Claim 2: There is no surjection from S to P(S).
 - Consider any function f : S → P(S) and consider the following set defined in terms of this function: A = {x|x ∉ f(x)}
 - Claim 2.1: There does not exist an element $s \in S$ such that f(s) = A.
 - Proof: For the sake of contradiction, assume that there is an s ∈ S such that f(s) = A. The following bi-implications follow:

$$s \in A \quad \leftrightarrow \quad s \in \{x | x \notin f(x) \\ \leftrightarrow \quad s \notin f(s) \\ \leftrightarrow \quad s \notin A$$

This is a contradiction. Hence the statement of the claim holds.

End

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